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THE GENESEE FARMER.

SATURDAY, JUNE 27, 1835.

Bone Manure.

The value of bones as manure, is not so well appreciated as it should be. Where its qualities are known, it is becoming an article of great demand. Large quantities have been transported from America, as well as from Germany, into Britain for enriching its soil. Such was the demand for it lately in Scotland, that the price had risen to three shillings and six pence (or nearly seventy cents) per bushel. In the neighborhood of London, bones are much used as manure; after being broken and boiled for grease, they are sold to the farmer.

A writer in the Gardener's Magazine, is of opinion that *bone dust* is the best of all possible manures. He says, "I make use of all the bones I can by any means collect, (robbing church yards excepted,) for the use of my vine and other fruit borders, also for asparagus beds. For such purposes they answer the most sanguine expectations."

A committee of the Doncaster Agricultural Society (England) was appointed in 1828 to make inquiries and report the result of them on the use and advantages of bones as a manure. They accordingly prepared a list of queries, embracing every point on which the inquiry depended. A certain district of country was allotted to each member of the committee, and the queries were thus submitted to the farmers of a large extent of country. The returns, with only two exceptions, concurred in stating the manure to be highly valuable, and on light and dry soils, superior to farm yard dung *and all other manures.* Upon very thin sand land, its value is not to be estimated. But upon clays and heavy loams the experiments were unfavorable.

An English writer says, "No manure equals it for the turnep crop—Swedish, as well as all the other kinds. When land is dressed with bone manure, plants are rarely attacked by that dreadful destroyer of turneps, the fly; and even when subject to the depredations of that insect, they thrive so rapidly that they generally grow beyond the power of injury. It is almost needless to call to the recollection of the farmer the fields he has seen devoured by that voracious insect, as soon as the plant appears. Now by using bones this evil will scarcely ever occur." The same writer, speaking of its strength and durability, says, "It is strong enough to produce as fine, nay, a superior crop of turneps to that produced by the richest dung; and the crops of the three succeeding years will be quite as good as those following a crop of turneps from rich dung."

It is stated in Willich's Domestic Encyclopedia, that "A. St. Leger, Esq. had once laid down to grass a large piece of very indifferent limestone land, with a crop of corn; and from this uniformly well dressed piece, he selected three rods of equal quality with the rest, and manured them with bones broken very small, at the rate of sixty bushels to the acre. Upon the land thus managed, the crop was infinitely superior to the rest. The next year's grass was also more luxuriant, and has continued to preserve the same superiority for at least eight years, insomuch that in spring it is green three weeks before the rest of the field." "Upon grass lands he observed that this kind of manure exerts its influence more powerfully the second year than the first."

The following statement by a writer in the *Cultivator* will serve to show its extraordinary fertilizing power, when mixed with horn shavings, which possess similar properties. "Having *two loads* of horn shavings and crushed bones, I directed them to be spread on *two* acres; but my men, being unacquainted with these materials, and not appreciating their strength as manure, thought to do me a kindness, and applied the whole to *one* acre. The consequence was, the stalks were too luxuriant and tender, and the wind prostrated them flat to the ground ere the grain was half grown."

Bones intended to be applied as manure should either be broken in small pieces, or ground to powder in a mill. When finely pulverized they operate more speedily and in smaller quantities, but are not so lasting in their effects as when broken into small pieces. The quantity per acre should be from fifteen to forty bushels, according to the degree of fineness to which they are reduced, or to the poorness or fertility of the soil. In drill husbandry, the best mode of applying bone dust is to mix and sow it with the seed. If those who wish to obtain a quantity of bone for manure, would make it known in the neighborhood that they will give so much per hundred weight, a large supply might in many instances be obtained. Bone and horn shavings may sometimes be obtained in considerable quantities from turning manufactories.

Remarks of a Traveler.

(CONTINUED.)

Repairing Highways.

The road-menders (so called) of this region, exhibit no more traces of intelligence than those who prepare beds for mud and mortar in the middle of the highways in the Genesee Country. "Thinkers are as scarce as gold," says Lavater; yes—and a great deal scarcer. When I see the finest alluvial deposits taken from the gutters and ditches at the sides of the road, and carefully thrown into the beaten track, I have to class both the overseer and his men with those "who live and *never think*," to use the language of Burns; for a very slight exertion of intellect must make it apparent that such materials are much fitter for their corn-fields. The first step towards improvement is to "cease to do evil;" and if these scatterers of the public treasure would learn to keep their hands out of mischief, the tax-gatherer would need a much smaller purse for his collections.

I presume no apology for my franknes will be necessary, even if the above paragraph should appear in print. Reformations are not to be effected without plain speaking. Several readers of the Genesee Farmer who reside hereabouts, have referred to this expenditure of the public funds with strong disapprobation; and I have some reason to hope that more correct ideas on the subject will eventually prevail. Indeed a total change of measures, is greatly to be desired. Wherever these scavengers call out their bands, instead of their really mending the roads, the progress of the traveler is greatly retarded. Large shovelfuls of mud are heaved into the track; and as the teamsters shun them as much as possible, they are left to harden in the sun. But when in the course of events, these molder down into dust, nothing is wanting to convert them again into mud, but a shower of rain and the first team that passes along.

Turnpikes in the lower parts of Pennsylvania, are all made of broken stone. So far as I had opportunities to observe, the fragments appear to be smaller than on those parts of the Great Western Turnpike of our state, where stone has been used; and the beaten track here approaches in its structure to M'Adamized roads. We passed with rapidity on several which lead from Philadelphia into the country, but not so comfortably as on *earthern* roads, which shows that if the fragments had been broken still smaller, they would be better. M'Adam's rule is that none shall weigh more than *six* ounces. How would this compare with broken stone in our country? and have we not reason to suppose that his order has been reversed? In many of our district roads, stones of more than *six* pounds weight have been thrown in, and even some that would weigh *six*teen. Can such *road-menders* ever reflect on their doings?

The Marking Drag.

This instrument is used for marking out the rows of Indian corn. It is here generally planted on the inverted sod, which renders it very desirable to have plenty of *mellow* earth. The drag consists of a piece of three-inch plank with two handles like those of a plough fastened into it at the hind end, by mortises; and five or more teeth or hoes which may be taken from a common cultivator, and which follow each other in a right line. A clevis at the fore-end completes the instrument.

The length of this drag may vary from seven to nine feet, as its being of a good length renders it more steady. The soil is so completely pulverized that it is found by experiment that one man can plant more corn after it in the same time, than two men can do when the ground is marked out by the plough. This is not the only advantage however: the soil is left in a much better state, and the growth of the young plants will be much more vigorous.

Thorn Hedges.

In ranging through the counties of Bucks,

Montgomery and Chester, I have been much interested with the appearance of the thorn hedges which have greatly multiplied since my last visit in this quarter. I was not aware that so much had been done. Many fields are protected by this most efficient and economical kind of fence, which has imparted a new feature to the landscape; and from some elevated points, the distant prospect of so many beautiful walls of verdure, has given me great pleasure.

I find that the Washington or Potowmac thorn, is the sort generally employed. It is preferred to the New Castle thorn, on account of its being more manageable, growing closer near the ground. Its seeds germinate freely. Some persons have complained that our native thorns were hard to propagate from seed, but I believe their observations were never extended to the Washington thorn.

I have seen but few farmers who doubt the value of hedges; and yet I have found some. The thorn is said to be occasionally attacked by insects, more especially by the same depredator that hangs its excrescences on the plum tree. If it really is the same insect, it shows some diversity of taste, as *Prunus* and *Cratagus* are not very closely allied as esculents. Whenever the hedges have been properly dressed however, it appears that these colonies have been easily destroyed; and it is favorable that no more work is necessary than what the good condition of the hedge actually requires in its ordinary state: that is, one trimming annually. By such pruning, all the infested parts are removed, and the whole insect establishment broken up.

It is well known that many years ago, hedges of the English thorn perished to a great extent on Long Island; and I have been told that some hedges in the vicinity of Philadelphia, owing to some injury or defect, have been lately removed to make room for other kinds of fencing. Before we give way to our apprehensions however, we ought to inquire what kind of thorn was employed? whether it was native or exotic? and whether the hedge had duly received the benefit of the shears? I have not discovered that the Washington thorn has failed in a single instance where it has been properly treated.

It appears that when hedging was first undertaken in this quarter, the ground was raised according to the European method; but the most judicious cultivators at this time, prefer planting on the natural surface. All the hedges that I have observed, consist of only one line or row. Unquestionably this plan is best adapted to our climate. In severe drouths, a ditch bank is an unfavorable position for stunted shrubs; and stunted they are like to be on such elevations, more especially when crowded in *double* rows. Such starved and feeble plants that barely exist in their best state, cannot reasonably be expected to resist the ravages of insects.

The ground designed for a hedge, should be prepared in the best manner by a summer fallow; and in this quarter it is considered advisable to manure it. In the next season the *quicks* are planted. Such as I have examined are from seven to twelve inches apart in the row. Quicks that have had the growth of two seasons in the seed bed, are employed, averaging perhaps a foot or fifteen inches in height; but the tops are shortened nearly to the ground, in order to multiply the stems. For the first two or three years, the plough, the hoe, or the cultivator, is necessary to subdue the weeds and grass; but after that lapse of time, the plants become strong enough to shift for themselves.

When the hedge has stood seven or eight years, it is *laid*. Some little difference in the method of performing this operation, is observable; but perhaps what follows, will be sufficiently descriptive: An upright stem is left at the distance of every two or three feet, while the intermediate plants are trimmed, and sometimes topped at the height of four or four and a half feet. These are then bent at an angle of forty-five degrees, cutting them at the same time about half off near the ground, so as to make them stay where they are put, and to prevent them from springing back; and the tops are then interwoven or wattled between the upright stems. All are bent in the same direction. When this part of the business is completed, the tops of the standards are also lopped and interwoven over the others.

The height at which the hedge then stands, may be about three feet and a half; and it is *laid* at this height because in trimming, the shears rarely cut so low as the end of the last year's shoots, so that the hedge gradually increases in altitude.

After this operation, one season is requisite for the growth of new shoots, which spring up both from the stumps and from the leaning stems, and bind and interlock the whole firmly together. It is then an efficient fence.

Some difference in the mode of trimming prevails in this quarter, but those who are the most exemplary in this respect, leave the hedge broad at the base and diminish its thickness upwards. Among the very finest specimens of this kind of pruning, I would name Dr. Darlington's near West Chester. Some hedges are left too broad on the top; and of course the lateral branches near the bottom,—so important for preventing the intrusion of small pigs,—are overshadowed and must eventually perish. Such a result is disastrous, and hard to be afterwards repaired.

It is very desirable that the base of the hedge be broad, (say three or four feet,) and that nothing be allowed to browse it till these lateral branches have become too stiff and hard to be relished as food. After this period sheep and cattle assist in keeping it properly trimmed.

Hedging has already become of such importance in this district as to give rise to a new class of laborers. These persons raise the *quicks*, and do the whole business of planting, cultivating, and finishing the hedge by the job. After one year, having replanted any vacancies that may have occurred, the contractor receives twenty-five cents per rod or perch; and twenty-five cents more when it is *laid* and completed; but the necessary fences to guard it in its infant state, are made by the proprietor.

It thus appears that hedges planted by contract, cost fifty cents a rod; and that eight or nine years elapse before it becomes a sufficient fence. The expense of keeping them in order, afterwards, is very trifling. Offers have been made to keep them in good condition for the annual charge of one cent a rod. Could contractors be found in our country to keep our best rail fences in repair for the same sum?

A hedge like a well disciplined sentinel is always at its post; and though we cannot suppose it, like the old Scottish warrior, to "bear a charmed life;" yet the hurricane that prostrates ordinary fences, and leaves a wide opening for all the starvlings of the neighborhood to enter,—treats it with perfect respect, and passes over without discomposing a single feature.

On the whole I have been particularly gratified with what I have seen and learned in regard to this matter. I intend to bespeak a quantity of the seed of this valuable thorn; and whether it will succeed or not in the Genesee Country, I intend at least to give it a fair trial.

The Turnep Fly.

Mr. Tucker—If you have room in the columns of the next Genesee Farmer, I should feel extremely obliged by your informing me what is the surest method of destroying the Turnep Fly. The tin milkpan mentioned in your number of 23d ult. was undoubtedly a certain mode of clearing an individual plant, but how, Mr. Tucker, are we to extirpate the destructive little insect from a field of ten acres?

My Wall-flowers, (which I introduced about four years ago from Germany into Scotland, now known there by the name of *Suterania*, or Lilac Wall-flower,) I fear will be wholly eaten up. I have remarked that they have increased in numbers after each of the heavy thunder showers we have lately experienced here, which I had vainly anticipated would have completely destroyed them.

Had I thought you required a bribe for conveying instruction to the ignorant, I might perhaps have said that one or two dozen of my best plants should be selected for Mr. Tucker, and his friends, but that I cannot now do in justice, as they were his before the fly made its appearance, and shall be forwarded to him as soon as they are ready for transplanting.

I remain, sir, truly yours, Retus.

Gore, U. C. 1st June, 1835.

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REMARKS.

The numerous prescriptions that have been recommended for this evil, show the great difficulty of obtaining one which will prove always effectual. Among the most efficacious are the following, which although intended principally for *turneps*, may also be adapted in most cases to wall flowers, as well as to all other cruciferous plants which are atttacked by the turnep fly or beetle.

An infusion of soot, tobacco leaves, or of any other substance pernicious or poisonous to insects, without injuring the plants, if used frequently and moderately in watering them in dry weather, will often prove effectual. As a liquid, however, cannot be used conveniently on a large piece of land, tobacco dust, mixed with lime, ashes, or soot, may be sown over the field at the rate of a half bushel to the acre, early every morning. Ellis, an old writer on husbandry, says, "Turneps sooted about 24 hours after they are up, will be entirely secured from the fly." Bridgeman says, "a peck of lime, soot, or tobacco dust, mixed with an equal quantity of ashes, or even dry road dust, sown every morning or evening for the first week after sowing the seed, would secure an

acre of ground, provided it be so contrived that the wind carry it over the whole piece of land, and as it often changes, this may be effected by crossing the land in a different direction every time, according as the wind may serve."

It is said that the eggs of the insect are attached to the seed of the turnep, whence they proceed, first in the grub, and afterwards in the perfect insect state, to attack the young plant. Hence rubbing, keeping and sowing the seed in flour sulphur, has in some cases completely succeeded in destroying them. Steeping them in fish oil 12 or 24 hours, then draining them off, and mixing them with plaster, to separate them, has also been used for the same purpose. The attachment of the insect to the seed requires further investigation to establish it as a general fact; and farther experiments are needed to prove the general efficacy of this remedy.

Loudon says, "Arch. Garrie, a Scottish gardener, tried steeping the seed in sulphur, sowing soot, ashes, and sea sand, along the drills, all without effect. At last he tried dusting the rows when the plants were in the seed-leaf, with quick lime, and found that effectual in preventing the depredations of the fly. 'A bushel of quick lime,' he says, 'is sufficient to dust over an acre of drilled turneps, and a boy may soon be taught to lay it on almost as fast as he could walk along the drills. If the seminal leaves are powdered in the slightest degree, it is sufficient; but should the rain wash the lime off before the turneps are in the rough leaf, it may be necessary to repeat the operation if the fly begins to make its appearance.'"

Making the ground so rich that the young plants will grow rapidly, and continue but a short time in the seed-leaf, is of considerable importance; for after the evolution of the rough leaves, they are nearly beyond danger from the insects. Another method, and perhaps the most uniformly effectual one where the soil will admit of it, is to use a heavy roller immediately after sowing the seed. This renders the surface smooth, and closes up the interstices in the soil which serve the insects as places of retreat from the weather, birds, &c.

Perhaps neither of these methods alone may prove effectual; but the employment of several of them together, would doubtless greatly lessen the evil, if not entirely prevent it.

The following plan is recommended in the Memoirs of the Board of Agriculture, as one which has proved uniformly successful in *avoiding* the insects, and is worthy of attention until an approved specific is discovered. "While the land is preparing for a full crop, begin to sow in your garden every second day, a small pinch of seed, and watch its progress; so long as the insects devour the plants immediately on coming up, it is not safe to sow; but the moment they begin to relax, which they will do, get the general crop sown as quick as possible; and if the best and freshest seed be sown on rich land, and moderately thick, a sufficiency of plants will soon get into the rough leaf, out of the reach of the fly, and make an abundant crop.

Though we require no bribe to induce us to answer the inquiries of our friends, whenever it is in our power, still a douceur like the one promised by Rettus, will always be acceptable as an assurance that our efforts are kindly remembered by those for whom we labor.

The Season.

Extract of a letter from our friend, Willis Gaylord, dated Otisco, June 9, 1835:

"The backwardness of the spring, and extreme wetness and coldness of April, had a most unfavorable effect upon the operations of the farmer, besides being productive of great inconvenience, and in some parts of the country real distress. Perhaps our flocks and herds suffered as little as in any section, but it will require large quantities of good feed, (which as yet we have not,) and considerable time, to bring them to the condition in which an ordinary winter and spring would have left them. Corn was necessarily planted late, and owing to various causes its present appearance in general is not promising. Some have been obliged to replant their corn, in consequence of the extensive ravages of the small red wire worm, which attacked the kernel as soon as it became softened in the earth, or as soon as it had sprouted.

"Wheat was sadly winter killed with us, but on the whole looks as favorably as could be expected. It is not believed there will be a medium crop, however, as there are many more pieces which fail of coming up to the ordinary standard, than there are which exceed. Large fields have been ploughed up and sown to oats, peas, &c., and there are others which are spotted.

"The current prices now are—wheat $1,25, corn 75, oats 50—no barley in market. Potatoes have been 50 cents, but are now about 30.

"Our anticipations of the future harvest are of course not very great, but we trust there will be no material deficiency. Fruit of all kinds grown here, with the exception of peaches, promises well. Many of our peach trees have died, and those which escaped destruction barely lived. The flower buds were so frozen that but few have opened, while the others have dried up and dropped off."

Remarkable Plants.

LARGE LEAVES.

In the foliage of plants, there is a vast diversity in superficial extent, as well as thickness.—There are leaves of microscopic minuteness; and others of an immense size. Some species of coltsfoot are of considerable magnitude; and leaves of the rheum palmatum have been found to measure five feet in their longest extent, by three feet in their greatest breadth. These, though remarkable for this climate, sink into insignificance in comparison with tropical foliage; the leaves of the danœa eliptica measure, in many instances, not less than six feet in length, and nearly eighteen inches in diameter in their widest part. The leaves of the strelitza regina grow to the height of three or four feet by eighteen inches, and sometimes leaves of this plant will be found still larger. The leaf of the musa paradisiaca, or plaintain, has been found to measure more than ten feet in length, by two feet at the base. Some leaves of palms far exceed even these dimensions. A leaf of the corypha unbraculifera, or great fan palm, or talipot tree, sometimes measures five and thirty feet in circumference, a sufficient covert for thirty or forty men. The rafia palm of Madagascar is said to measure sixty feet. A frond of the ciboa palm serves the natives of Africa as an umbrella, and thus protected Mungo Park from the tropical rains. In the South Sea Islands, the leaf of the talipot palm serves as a parasol, as it does the purpose of an umbrella in the East Indies. At Manilla, one of Phillipine Islands, a Jesuit missionary, had a dwelling constructed for him under two palm leaves where he said mass, and slep secure; it was a complete covert from the storm, and no rain could penetrate In consistency also, the fronds or leaves are very various; airy, like gossamer, or the texture of the most delicate film, up to the coriaccous mass of the Nopal, or the thick succulent leaves of some mesembryanthemums, and the rigid ones of the agave. The leaves of the paliscourea rigida, large, tough, and unyielding, rustle like parchment in the wind; and the cactus spinosissimus, and some yuccas and agaves, might form a stockade or circumvallation, which would defy an enemy with all the armory of war. Indeed, we once remember to have seen near to Orbitello, in Italy, a field, of which the agave americana was the entire fence, and a most impenetrable barrier it seemed to be.

Leaves are sometimes beautifully polished, and shine like ivory. The begonia nitida has leaves which possess a beautiful luster; the magnolia, the holley, and the laurel, have leaves that seem to be varnished. Each leaf of the double cocoanut is twenty feet long and ten feet wide. Sometimes the leaf is silky, or satiny, resembling the pericarp of honesty. The silver tree, protea argentea, presents a beautiful example of a shining satiny leaf; some leaves are so clothed with down as to resemble white velvet; the verbascum thapsus, or great mullein, is a familiar instance of a thick wooly covering for the surface of the leaf. Sometimes this satiny or wooly integument may be stripped off entire, a process which is managed with considerable dexterity by the natives of the south of Africa; the stalks and leaves, thus treated, supply stockings, gloves and caps. According to Humboldt, caps are formed of the spathes of certain palms, which possess a coarse net-like tissue. The inner bark of cerra druida, or shirt-trees, supplies the Indians with garments resembling sack-cloth.—*Murray's Philiology of Plants.*

The best way to be happy.—Never sit down and brood over trouble of any kind. If you are vexed with yourself or the world, this is no way to obtain satisfaction. Find yourself employment that will keep the mind active, and depend upon it this will force out unwelcome thoughts.

Who are the poor? Are they the industrious? Those who labor, provided their gains are small, have generally a feeling of independence with that little akin to the rich man's treasures.

Who are the unhappy? Are they not those who are inactive, and sit still and tell us, if fortune had only thrown this and that in their way, that they should have been far happier?

It seems to me there is a great defect in the conduct of the unfortunate If we are deprived of ordinary resources, instead of looking round and substituting other things, are we not prone to sit down and mourn what we have lost? This deadens the energies, kills the activity of our natures, and makes us useless drones, when we should be working bees.

Besides this, indolence sets fancy at work, and presently we imagine ourselves to be in a condition that we are unfit to work. We get the habit of observing the changes in the wind, we feel our pulses, look at our tongue, and in a short time become regular dyspeptics. Industry then, preserves health as well as happiness.

Distresses in the North.—From the Troy Times, (Miami county,) we learn there is much distress for food existing at present, with the poor in the extreme North of this state. The Times says—"We understand, from the representation of travelers, that there are many families, not fifty miles from us, who are entirely destitute of bread, and have no means of procuring it, and are living on wild meat and fish, and have no better prospect till corn can be raised."

A meeting was held at Troy, on last Saturday, for the purpose of raising contributions for the relief of the sufferers.—*Columbus, (Ohio) State Gaz.*

COMMUNICATIONS.

Rotation.

BY W. G.

I have ever considered the notion which has been advanced in some of the English agricultural journals, that the matter thrown off in the soil by a species of plants is *poisonous* to other plants of the same kind, if grown in succession, as most unphilosophical, and contrary to fact. Some of the advocates of a doctrine of an *absolute necessity in all cases for a rotation of crops*, found in this supposition of excrementitious poison, a very convenient argument for their system, and hence it has obtained some currency both at home and in this country. Farmers, however, of all men, should be the last to be wedded to theory, as theirs is a profession eminently practical. It is too late in the day to "doubt" that the system of rotation in crops, under proper circumstances, is of the first importance in agriculture. Its effect, however, does not depend on the extinction of excrementitious poison, but by a renewal of the proper food of plants. That the influence of rotation has been overrated by some English and American theorists will not be disputed, and when the time comes to underrate, of which some symptoms can be discerned already, it is at least probable it will be as injudiciously decried. That corn will grow in succession for half a century on the Genesee flats—wheat for thirty years on some of the favored wheat lands of West New York—and oats for twenty years on some of the slaty soils of Cattaraugus, without much diminution of quantity, I can readily believe; but exceptions like these to the system of rotation only demonstrate the propriety of the course in general. To us it appears the doctrine of rotation is founded on very simple principles, capable of easy and successful application, and hardly leaving room for doubt or disputation. That plants during their growth do take up, and appropriate as nourishment, very different materials from the same soil, will not be questioned by any one who has paid the least attention to vegetable physiology. For instance, does the pine apple or the orange take as much silex from the earth as the bamboo or the rattan, some of the species of which have an outer covering so hard as to strike fire when struck together?—or, to select a more familiar example, does the linden contain as much of the salt called potash as the elm or beech?—and how does it happen that while 1000 pounds of wormwood yields 784 lbs. of saline matter, the box and the aspen produce but 70? This faculty of taking up particular substances as food, and the necessity of the supply, holds good in the cereal grasses, such as wheat, rye, barley; in corn and oats; in roots, such as potatoes, carrots, turneps, beets, &c. They all find and assimilate as nourishment different ingredients from the same soil, or appropriate them in very different proportions. If the soil of my farm abounds in those aliments essential to the production of wheat, I can raise crop after crop from the same land, and rotation is needless; and this course of successive crops will be successful in exact ratio to the continued supply of proper food. If, however, the proper food of the wheat plant is limited, a rotation of crops, and manuring, by which this quality can be restored, is indispensible. It is so with corn, oats, and most other plants. The rich alluvion of the Genesee flats is apparently inexhaustible by corn; perhaps 90 parts in 100 are suited to the growth of that important article; but this fact does not prove that other and less favored soils cannot be exhausted, or will not be benefited by a rotation. I have seen some of the oat lands spoken of by Mr. Allen in a former number of the Farmer, and feel a pleasure in bearing testimony to the general correctness of his views, and justness of his remarks; yet the facts he has stated furnish perhaps one of the strongest of arguments in proof that different plants take up different materials from the same soil, and therefore that rotation must, in most cases, be advantageous. Those lands in the southern tier of counties of which Mr. Allen has spoken, as producing such abundant crops of grass and oats, are, it is well known, worthless for wheat, the flour of the little they do produce being of a very inferior quality, and no more resembling that of the counties bordering on the lakes, than does the rye flour of the eastern states. I should put but little confidence in the theoretical notions of any man, who could imagine that the farming of a whole country can be made to conform to a single system, or pattern. There is an almost infinite variety in the original ingredients of our soils and their proportions, and the mode of treatment, to be judicious, should be as near as possible made to conform to these variations. There are some general principles every where applicable, and there are others which have but few exceptions; of the latter class I consider to be the doctrine of the utility of rotation in crops. My friends, the practical as well as theoretical Ulmus, or the "doubting" R. M. W., may be so fortunate as to possess farms which will admit of an unbroken succession of wheat crops, but I imagine the farmers of Old Onondaga will in general agree with me, that the simple rotation of wheat and clover has more enhanced the productiveness of their farms, and consequently rendered them more profitable and valuable, than would successive but necessarily diminished crops of that valuable grain, and important staple of our country. W. G.

"Woodland Pastures."

BY UNUS.

Mr. Tucker—In a recent tour through Woodford, Bourbon, Scott and Fayette counties, in Kentucky, I could not but be enraptured with a view of the "Woodland Pastures," which are so much the pride of that portion of Kentucky. They certainly exceeded any thing of the kind in point of beauty, that I ever saw, and suggested to my mind the feasibility of approximating, if not rivaling them in beauty and utility. They are said to yield as great amount of feed as land that has been fully cleared of the timber. They are thickly "set," as they term it, with "blue grass," but it appears to me of a variety, if not species, entirely different from that kind of grass known in Western New York as "blue grass,"—a kind which yields extremely sweet feed in great abundance, and rather courts a partial shade than an entirely open field. To give an idea of the beauty and pleasantness of these fields is entirely beyond my power of description, and all I design is to awaken the farmers of Western New York to the practicability of at once benefitting their farms and increasing the product by clearing from their woods the fallen, decaying wood and underbrush, and permitting, instead of this useless encumbrance, a growth of grass to occupy the ground. In the mean time I should be glad to have any one give an accurate account of Kentucky "blue grass," and where the seed may be obtained. Could I obtain the seed, I would commence making some experiments in this country that might tend to elucidate the subject. Unus.

Draining.

From "Elements of Practical Agriculture," by David Low, Professor of Agriculture in the University of Edinburgh.

(Continued from page 173.)

Before beginning to drain a field or tract of ground, it is frequently well to ascertain, by examination, the nature of the substances to be dug through.

At the upper part where the wet tract to be drained appears, or between the wet and the dry, let a few pits be dug. The place of each pit is to be marked out nearly in the direction of the proposed line of drain, six feet long by three in width, in which space one man, and if required, two, can work. Let the earth be thrown out to the lower side, and to such a distance from the edge of the pits as not to press upon and break down the sides. Let these pits be cast out to the depth of five or six feet, or more, if necessary, so that we may reach, if possible, the porous bed in which the water is contained. Should we find no water, then let us apply a boring rod, in order to ascertain at what depth the porous substance lies in which the water is contained.

Sometimes water will not be found until we come to a great depth. It may be so deep that we cannot reach it by any drain, or even by boring with the auger. In this case, we are saved the labor of making the drain unnecessarily deep. Sometimes we shall proceed to a considerable depth without finding any appearance of water, when, all at once, by breaking through some thin stratum, we shall reach it. The water is frequently seen, in this case, to boil up like a fountain, and this affords the assurance that we shall succeed in our object.

This species of preparatory examination by means of pits is, therefore, in many cases, useful. It affords the means of judging of the proper depth and dimensions of which the drain shall be formed; it prevents the committing of errors in the laying out of the lines of drains; and it enables the drainer to enter into contracts with his workmen with precision.

When we have thus, by sinking pits in various parts of our intended lines, obtained an idea of the nature of the ground, of the substances to be dug through, and of the depth of the water, we mark our lines of drains upon the ground.

This may be done by pins, or by a plough drawing a furrow along the intended line.

It is at this time very convenient to make a hand-sketch of the piece of ground to be drained, marking each line as it is laid off in the field, and noting the depth and direction in which the water is to run.

The lines being marked off in the manner described, these are to form the upper edges of the drains.

The width of the drain at the top depends upon its depth, it being usual, except in the case of very hard and tenacious substances, to make it slope from the top to the bottom. Thus, if it be six feet deep, and from 18 inches to two feet wide at bottom, it may be 2½ feet wide at top.

The workman, in forming the trench, works up to the higher ground, and never from the higher ground to the lower. The instruments which he uses in the operation are the common spade, a shovel for throwing out loose substances, a pick or mattock for raising stones and breaking the earth when hard, and the foot-pick.

The materials to be used for filling the drain may be stones, tiles, or other hard and durable substances. When stones are to be employed, if they are inconveniently large, they may be broken to the weight of three or four pounds. They may be laid down for use, before the cutting of the drain is begun, along the upper line of the drain, the earth being thrown by the workmen to the lower side; or else they may be brought forward while the work is going on, and thrown from the cart into the drain.

In the larger class of drains, it is regarded as beneficial, and even necessary, to form a conduit at the bottom. This is done by building a little wall roughly on each side at the bottom, about 6 inches in height, and so as to leave an aperture or conduit of about 6 inches in depth. The workman then covers it with such flat stones as he can procure, filling up also the interstices of these covers with small stones, so as to defend the conduit from earth and other substances that might fall into it. When this is done, the remaining stones are thrown in promiscuously to the height of 18 inches or 2 feet above the cover. The stones are then to be made level at the top, and either covered with the soil which, on breaking the ground of the drain, had been laid aside for that purpose, or with a covering of straw, heath, or the like. The object of this covering is to prevent the loose earth from falling amongst the stones.

When these operations are completed, the earth which had been thrown out of the trench is shoveled upon the stones until it be above the level of the surface. The object of raising it higher than the surface is to provide for the subsidence of the loose earth, which is generally found to be rendered more compact and to occupy a smaller space than it did in its original state. When a portion of the earth is shoveled in, it is an economy of labor to employ a common plough for filling in the remainder.

Fig. 1.

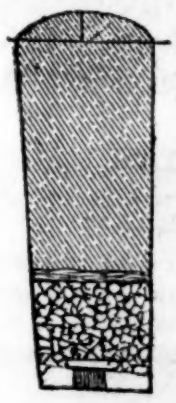
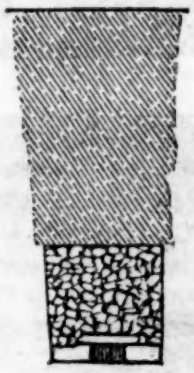


Fig. 2



A drain thus formed will appear on a transverse section, as in fig. 1, and after the subsidence of the earth, as in fig. 2. Where the soil is very soft, it is of benefit to have the lower part of the drain with stones or slates. In the whole operation of forming the trench and conduit, great care is necessary in seeing that all the parts of the work are executed well.

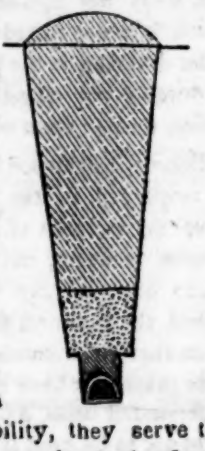
The stones used for this species of drain may be sandstone, or any of the harder stones that can be obtained. But in many cases, stones are not to be obtained, in which case tile may be substituted.

Fig. 3.

The tiles, which are made with an arch, as in the annexed figure, may be formed of separate pieces of about 14 inches in length. Flat soles are made of the same material, on which the arched tiles are to rest.

The method of forming the drain when tiles are the material employed, is somewhat different from that adopted when stones are used.

Fig. 4.



The drain is carried down as narrow as a man can work, and at the bottom an excavation is made by means of a narrow mouthed spade, to fit the dimensions of the tile, which is then placed upon its stand or sole. Above this should be laid some loose materials, as clean gravel or sand, for allowing the filtration of the water. Even brushwood and such materials, may be used; for, though they are not of great durability, they serve the purpose, even after they have decayed, of rendering the earth more open and pervious to water.

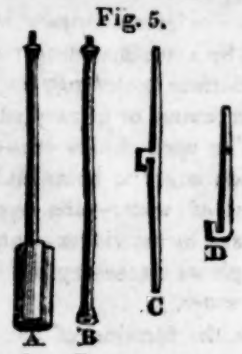
Drains formed in this manner, whether the material employed be stone or tile, will be found efficient when they are laid out in the proper direction, and when the pervious substances are reached in which the water is contained.

But it is often impracticable to reach these substances with a drain of common depth. In this case, apertures may be formed at the bottom of the drain, by boring or sinking down at the proper distances, until the pervious beds in which the water is contained are reached. By this means, the water will be allowed to flow up from below into the cavity of the drain, and so will be carried away.

The application of this principle has been familiar from the remotest times in the sinking of wells. But it was not till after the middle of the last century that the same principle was applied to the draining of land. This was done by Mr. Elkington of Warwickshire, who employed the auger and the boring rod for the purpose of reaching the channels and reservoirs below the surface, when an ordinary drain could not reach them.

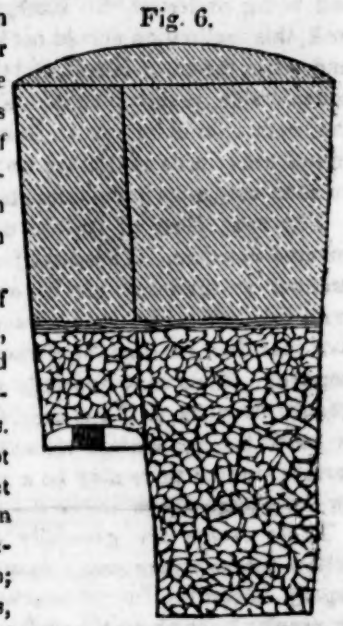
The auger employed for this purpose, is similar to a carpenter's wimple. It may be from 4 to 5 inches in diameter. Square iron rods are made to be screwed into each other, so that the length of the line of rods may be increased in proportion as the auger penetrates the ground. In the annexed figure, A is the auger, B one of the rods, C a key for turning it round and working it, D another key for holding the rods when they are to be unscrewed by means of the key C.

Fig. 5.



This instrument may be frequently found useful when the channels and reservoirs of water can be reached in this manner. The apertures are formed by the auger in the bottom of the drain. When the water is reached, it will spring up into the drain in the same manner as water in the bottom of a well. It is not necessary to employ any artificial means for keeping the apertures open, as the flow of the water will suffice to maintain for itself a passage.

Fig. 6.



Sometimes, in place of an auger hole, wells are sunk at intervals along the side of the drain, and filled with stones in the manner shown in the figure.

In all cases of under draining, the drains should be made of sufficient dimensions. They should not be less than 4 feet deep, even when the pervious strata lie at less depth; and the reason is, that they should be more permanent, and better defended from mud and sand, carried down by surface water. It is not necessary that they be made deeper than 4 feet, when that is found to be sufficient; but they must be carried, if necessary, to the depth of 6 feet, or even sometimes of 7 feet, though the expense and difficulty of executing the work increase, in a great proportion, as the dimensions of the drain increase.

The importance, in this species of draining, of proceeding upon principles in laying out the lines of drains, instead of acting at random, as so many do, cannot be too strongly impressed upon the attention of the drainer. Every drain, however rudely devised and imperfectly executed, may do some good. But one drain well laid out, and of the required dimensions, may perform a purpose which no multiplication of minor and insufficint drains can effect. These may lessen the effects of wetness, but the other is designed to remove the causes of it; and the more perfect practice will usually be found in the end to be the most economical as well as the most efficient.

The drains of the larger class described, it will be seen, are intended solely for the removal of water which is contained in reservoirs and channels below the surface. They do not supersede the necessity of carrying away water which is at or near the surface. From this latter cause, an

equal or greater injury may arise, and must be met by a corresponding remedy.

Surface water may be carried away either in open drains, or in covered trenches.

The open drains are—the ditches of fields, which ought to be so laid out as to favor the descent of water—the open furrows, which are formed by the ridges—and open trenches cut in the places necessary for allowing a passage for the water.

In the forming of open trenches, the dimensions must be fixed with relation to the quantity of water to be carried away, and the direction determined by the natural flow of the water, or by the particular course by which it is expedient to carry it off In general, open drains are formed in the hollows or lower parts of the land to be drained, so that the water may find access to them from the higher grounds.

In forming open drains, of whatever depth, the sides should possess a declivity from the bottom to the top, to prevent them from crumbling down and being undermined. Except in the case of rock, this inclination should not be less than 45°; and when the earth is soft, and the flow of water considerable, it should exceed 45°. In all cases, the earth should be spread from the edge of the trench backwards, so that the water from the lands on each side may have access to it.

The next class of surface drains consists of covered trenches. These are formed in the same manner as the larger drains already described, with this difference, that no conduit is required, and that they need not be of the same depth and capacity. They may generally consist of a small trench, from 2½ to 3 feet deep, filled with stones or other loose materials to within a foot of the surface, so that there may be a sufficient passage for the plough above.

These drains are generally carried through hollow places where water may stagnate, or obliquely, along the line of descent, and sometimes in regular lines along the surface of flat lands.

When the soil rests on a subsoil of considerable depth, the water that falls upon the surface is unable to penetrate freely down, and is absorbed and retained by the soil and upper part of the subsoil. The object in such a case is to give a ready egress to the water with which the soil is saturated, which will be done by forming for it various channels towards some convenient outlet. A good arrangement of ridges and furrows will sometimes of itself effect this purpose; but as the water constantly tends to sink below the level of the furrows, drains may become necessary to assist in carrying it away.

A system of draining having relation to this condition of the soil and subsoil, has been termed the Essex system, from its having been extensively practiced in that flat and clayey district. This system consists in running small drains parallel to each other in every furrow or alternate furrow. The object of this species of draining is not to intercept springs flowing in channels and pervious strata below the surface, but to convey away that water from the surface which, from the tenacity of the soil and subsoil, cannot find its way downwards.

The best material to be used in this species of draining is tiles, formed into a semi-cylinder or arch, and resting upon a flat sole, Fig. 3. The diameter of the semi-cylinder may be from 3 to 4 inches. The tiles are to be placed on their stands in the bottom of the trench. The water finds its way into the arched conduit thus formed at the crevices formed by the junction of the tiles. Sometimes, in addition, are formed through them small holes, so that the water may more readily find its way into the conduit.

The trench for the reception of the tiles may be from 18 inches to 2 feet deep. The tiles may be covered, first with the sod inverted, when there is any sod upon the surface at the time of draining, second with the looser soil next the surface, and lastly with the more tenacious subsoil. But it is always an improvement in the case of this kind of drains, to lay over the tiles some gravel, sand, or other pervious matter, before shoveling in the earth.

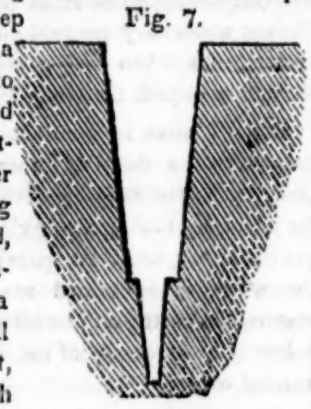
Drains of this kind, when properly made, and when the tiles are good, will last for a considerable time. When choked at any particular part, they can be easily taken up at that part, and the tiles replaced, or new ones substituted.

Though this species of draining is well suited to particular cases, great care should be taken that it is not applied under circumstances to which it is not suited. When employed where under draining is the proper remedy, it is neither so durable nor efficient as the system of larger drains, formed upon correct principles.

Thorns, brushwood and branches, are frequently employed in the filling of drains. They serve the purpose of affording a more pervious channel to water, but they soon decay, and the drains are very apt to be choked. Sometimes, indeed, the channels formed by the water remain, when there is a considerable current, long after these materials have decayed. But this cannot be depended upon, and such materials, therefore, ought not to be used if better can be obtained.

Sometimes a species of draining, termed Wedge-draining, has been employed The general method of performing this is to form a narrow trench with a long narrow shovel The spit being taken out as deep as the shovel can go, a scoop is employed to clear out the mud and loose earth at the bottom. Then another shovel corresponding with the first is used, and a second spit taken out, and then a narrower shovel still to clear the whole out, —forming a trench with a ledge, as in Fig. 7.

Fig. 7.

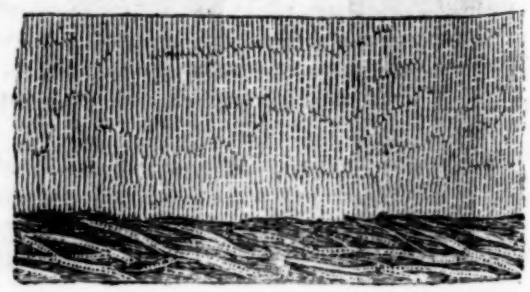


A piece of sod, with the grass side below, is then forced down, and, resting upon the ledge, a space is left for the water below. Sometimes the ledge is dispensed with, and the sod is merely formed into a wedge, narrowed towards the grassy side, and this, when the little trench is cleared out, is pressed into it and covered with earth; and as it does not reach the narrow bottom, a channel remains below, through which the water percolates.*

* There are two other materials for under draining which we have employed, for want of stones, both equal, if not superior, to sod, viz: brush-wood and straw. For brush-wood, the trench may be made like fig. 1, 18 or 24 inches wide, and three or four feet deep. The brush we have used, have been pine saplings, from two to six inches at the but. They are cut into lengths of four or five feet, and, commencing at the upper end, placed diagonally in the trench, the buts down and towards the outlet. When completed, the ditch is apparently full. The brush is then all brought within the edges of the ditch, well trod down, and the earth thrown in. Bundles of faggots are sometimes employed. When straw is to be used, the ditch is made to conform to fig. 7. The lower part is cut by a spade 10 inches long, three broad at top, and one inch at bottom, and the loose dirt carefully removed with a scraper, which we may hereafter give a figure of; the straw being twisted into ropes, is then pressed gently with a spade into the narrow cut, the sod placed over it, and the earth thrown in. A side view of a brush drain is shown in the annexed cuts; A shows the form of placing the brush, and B its position after the trench is filled with the earth. In both cases, the sides of the main trench may be cut perpendicular.

A.

B.



This simple species of drain has been extensively adopted in some districts; and as it is easily formed, and as the number of drains may be multiplied at little expense, considerable benefit has resulted from the use of it. But although drains of this kind will remain open for a considerable time, yet they are exceedingly apt to be closed up; on which account, the use of tile is in most cases to be preferred.

Hints Relative to Dairy Management.

Dr. James Anderson has published the following observations on this subject, which though they may not be new to many of our readers, may be original to some, and useful to most others by putting them in mind of processes and practices, which otherwise might escape from memory.

1. The first milk drawn from a cow is always thinner, and of an inferior quality to that which is afterwards obtained; and this richness increases progressively to the very last drop that can be drawn from the udder. 2. The proportion of the cream rising first to the surface is richer in quality and greater in quantity, than what rises in the second equal spaces of time, and so forth; the cream continually decreasing and growing worse than the preceding. 3. Thick milk produces a smaller proportion of cream than that which is thinner, though the cream of the former is of a richer quality. If, therefore, the thick milk be diluted with water, it will afford more cream than it would have done in its pure state; but its quality will at the same time be inferior. 4. Milk carried about in pails, or other vessels, agitated and partly cooled, before it be put into the milk

pans, never throws up such a good and plentiful cream as if it had been put into proper vessels immediately after it came from the cow.

"Cows should, therefore, always be milked as near the dairy as possible, to prevent the necessity of carrying and cooling the milk before it be put into the dishes, and as cows are much hurt by far driving, it must be a great advantage in a dairy farm to have the principal grass fields as near the dairy or homestead as possible. It is injudicious to put the milk of all the cows of a large dairy into one vessel as it is milked, because it prevents the owner of the dairy from distinguishing the good from the bad cows milk, so as to enlighten his judgment respecting the profit he may derive from each. Without this precaution he may have the whole produce of his dairy greatly debased by the milk of a bad cow, for years together. A better practice, therefore, would be, to have the milk drawn from each cow separately, put into the creaming pans as soon as they are milked, without being mixed with each other; and if these pans were always made of such a size as to be able to contain the whole of one cow's milk, each in a separate pan, so that the person who manages the dairy, could thus remark the quality and quantity of each cow's milk, and the same cow's milk were always to be placed on the same part of the shelf, having the cow's name written beneath, there could never be the smallest difficulty in ascertaining which of the cows it would be the owners interest to dispose of, and which he ought to keep and breed from. If it be intended to make butter of a *very fine quality*, it will be advisable, not only to reject entirely the milk of all those cows which yield cream of a bad quality; but also in every case, to keep the milk that is first drawn from the cow at each milking, entirely separated from that which is drawn last; as it is obvious if this be not done, the quality of the butter must be greatly debased, without much augmenting its quantity. It is also obvious that the quality of the butter will be improved in proportion to the smallness of the quantity of the last drawn milk which is used, as it increases in richness to the very last drop that can be drawn from the udder at that time; so that those who wish to be singularly nice, keep for their very best butter a *very small proportion only of their last drawn milk.*"

We do not know that any of those who have made or attempted to make butter for premiums have proceeded in conformity to the above directions by Dr. Anderson, in their full extent. Mr. Luther Chamberlain, who in December last, obtained a premium of fifty dollars from the Massachusetts Society for promoting Agriculture, made use of cream of the first rising only, and observes in specifying his mode of making said butter that "the dairymen want to get rich too fast; this is a great reason why you do not have better butter. At this season of the year the cream ought not to stand on the milk more than twelve hours in order to make good butter, of course we do not get more than half the cream. There will rise another coat of cream, which may be applied to other uses except butter."

Here we have one of Dr. Anderson's precepts put in practice, viz. that of using, for making the best butter, that portion only of the cream, which rises first to the surface; and perhaps Mr. Chamberlain's success may be mostly owing to his observation of this rule. We wish that Dr. Anderson's other rules might be observed by those who are striving to excel in that branch of economy, viz. that of keeping the milk, which is first drawn from a cow separate from that which is drawn last, and use the last drawn only for butter of the first quality. The cow keeper, would also derive great advantage from keeping the milk drawn from each cow in a separate pan, and thus he would have not only an accurate criterion for estimating the character and value of each of his cows, but by using only the first risen cream, of the last drawn milk of such cows as give milk of the richest quality, he might hope to manufacture butter that would excel even the best premium butter which has ever won a prize at our exhibitions.—*N. E. Farmer.*

From the New York Farmer.

Hops.

The opinions of intelligent and practical men, or rather the results of their own actual experiments, are of great value. This applies particularly to small farmers, whose operations, being on a limited scale, receive their immediate personal attention In looking at such results, however, those who farm on a large scale are liable to be led into error in expecting that the same will follow an extended cultivation, forgetting that the success is in many cases mainly to be ascribed to this minute personal attention, stimulated and strengthened by self-interest. In extended concerns, that attention cannot always be given; and as much hired labor is employed, the powerful motives of interest do not operate. The large and enterprising farmer, therefore, must take this into consideration; as his concerns extend themselves, his risks are multiplied; and if the results of his cultivation are not proportionately correspondent to those of the small farmer, he must often place it to the account of circumstances absolutely beyond his control. Nothing valuable in this world is accomplished without perseverance, labor, fidelity, and attention. This is one of the wise provisions in the constitution of things; one of the benificent laws of a righteous Providence. On the other hand, labor, perseverance, fidelity, and attention, seldom fail, in ordinary circumstances, of reasonable success. The business of the farmer particularly demands his attention, and his ill fortune may be but too often traced to neglect, to this want of personal attention, to the division of his care among other pursuits, or to a miscalculation in extending his operations beyond his power of immediate and careful superintendence. These remarks often occur to me in my visits among our small farmers, with whom I have been much in the habit of familiar, agreeable, and instructive intercourse; whose affairs are managed under their own immediate and constant personal attention, and among whom I often meet, with the highest pleasure, with examples in a small way of eminent success. I have been long accustomed to note the observations of such men, and to gather and record any facts which they have been kind enough to communicate, where I knew I could rely upon the correctness of their statements. I now send you some information, obtained in this way, in relation to the cultivation of hops by two farmers, who cultivate a small farm in partnership, in a town in Vermont, on the Connecticut river.

Messrs. D. & H., in 1833, from four acres obtained 3000 pounds, which sold for 20 cents per pound. In 1834, from five and one half acres they obtained 4000 pounds, which sold for 15 cents per pound. In 1833 they judged that their land, after deducting all expenses, yielded an income of $100 per acre.

Hops are planted 8 feet apart in hills. The cuttings are planted, and Indian corn is cultivated among them the first year, about half as thick as when planted by itself. The corn and hops are hoed at the same time. The second year the hops are polled and a crop gathered.

Green barn manure is thought to be injurious to the vines. Fall manure, or compost, is deemed best. The hills are opened in the spring; the vines are then trimmed, the ground loosened, and the manure applied to the hill. The field must be kept clean of weeds. The hops are gathered by hand. Women are employed in the picking at 20 cents per day. They require to be kiln-dried immediately, as they are very liable to be injured by heating in the heap. From 45 to 75 lbs. are kiln-dried at a time, and the process of drying occupies about 12 hours. After drying they are put into a heap and suffered to sweat a little, and then conveyed to be packed and bagged, which is done by a screw press. They are packed and screwed for about $5 per ton, and are then sent to market without delay. The manner and condition in which they are put up is of the greatest importance, for if the inspector discovers, on trying the bag, the whole bag is condemned. Spruce poles for hops, about 15 feet high, cost here one cent apiece. Messrs. D. & H. gave 25 cents per one hundred and cut them for themselves. They will set this year about 4400.

The market price of hops is very fluctuating, and the risk of curing them well is very considerable, and requires great experience and care.—The ordinary yield per acre I am not able to state, as it varies greatly. In some parts of this state they are extensively cultivated; and on land, which, without great attention, would make very small returns. A farmer in Boxborough, Mass., recently from five acres of land gathered 10,000 pounds; and I have been credibly informed that a farmer on the river, about 12 miles above this, the year before the last, received from twelve to fourteen hundred dollars from the sale of his crop of hops. The cultivation, I am persuaded, might be extended to great advantage, as there is little fear that the market will be over-supplied. It must not be forgotten, however, that the quality and condition of the article, when sent to market, is of the last importance. Good hops will always command a fair price. Damaged or ill-conditioned hops are worthless. H. C.

Meadowbanks, May, 1835.

Fisher on the Vine.

OBSERVATIONS on the Culture of the European Vine, to which is added a Manual of the Swiss Vignerons and the art of Wine making, translated from the French—Price 75 cents. For sale by
june 20 HOYT & PORTER.

Red Clover and Timothy Seed.

A FEW bushels just received at the Rochester Seed Store.
REYNOLDS & BATEHAM.

150 lbs. Lucern Seed,

OF fine quality and proved vitality, for sale at a reduced price, at the Rochester Seed Store.
Also, A few thousand SILK WORM EGGS, just received and for sale as above.
REYNOLDS & BATEHAM.

FLOWER SEEDS.

A SPLENDID assortment of Annual, Biennial and Perennial Flower Seeds, put up in small papers at 6 cents each, or 20 varieties for $1, and 100 varieties for $4, for sale at the Rochester Seed Store.
REYNOLDS & BATEHAM.

Turnep Seed.

RUTA Baga or Yellow Swedish, Large White Flat or Globe, Large English Norfolk, Long Tankard or Hanover, Early White Flat Dutch, Long Yellow French, White French or White Swedish, Yellow Maltese, Dale's New Yellow Hybrid, and various other kinds for sale at the Rochester seed store.
REYNOLDS & BATEHAM.

Robbins' Patent Planting MACHINE.

WITH this machine Corn, Beans, Peas, and all seeds of an oval shape can be planted with more system and correctness than can be done in the usual manner of planting with the hand and hoe.

One acre of ground can be planted, placing the seeds any given distance apart, from two or more inches, and rows two and a half feet between, in three hours time.

Machines can be had by applying to C. N. BEMENT, Treasurer of the State Agricultural Society, Albany; BUSHROD BUCK, Lanesborough, Berkshire county, Mass.; and DANIEL I. BUCK, Lowville, Lewis county, agent and proprietor for making and vending said machines, at all of which places it is intended to keep a supply on hand.

☞ The above machines are for sale at Reynolds & Bateham's Seed Store Rochester.
Lowville, March 25th, 1835. ap 14-tf

A Valuable Farm For Sale.

THE valuable FARM owned and occupied by Elias Beach, 4 miles west from the city and situated directly on the Erie Canal, containing 240 acres of good wheat and grass soil, well watered, with good house, barns, out houses, &c. Five thousand dollars will be required in cash, and the balance may remain on bond and mortgage for a term of years. Title indisputable. The price per acre may be learned on inquiring of JAMES H. WATTS, at No. 3 Exchange-street, Rochester, and the owner will at all times be ready to give further particulars on the premises. ap 18-tf

Night.

'Tis sweet to walk at midnight hour,
When all is still, and heaven is clear,
When not a cloud is seen to lower
Along the living hemisphere;
And the fair moon, the queen above,
Shines all around, in watchful love;
Oh! if thy wandering footsteps stray,
At such an hour, can'st thou survey
That mild, that bright, untroubled ray,
And cherish, then, an earthly thought,
One passion that is dimly wrought
With this unhallowed clay?
Or dost thou not, within thy breast,
Feel all thy spirit laid to rest,
And calmed with thoughts, serene and high,
And full of immortality!

Rewards of Effort.

There is probably no country in which industry in every department of business, meets with such ample returns as in our own. We have among us no titled and hereditary nobility—no legalized distinctions of rank—in short no other nobility and distinction than such as industry, merit and virtue necessarily bring with them, and such as every man of whatever parentage, of whatever occupation or calling, may aspire to and attain.—The field for competition is open to all—rewards and honors find their subjects among every sphere and occupation—while wealth and influence flow in alike to the husbandman, the mechanic, and the learned professions, and among the meritorious of each no invidious distinctions on republican ground can exist, except such as may arise from different degrees of ability and intelligence, and different shades of moral character. Some of the most distinguished men our country has produced, have come up from what are called the humbler walks of life—the lower classes of society—and such, without wealth or patronage to aid them, without any resources except such as native ability to combine and compare, and common sense to adapt a means to an end, have furnished—not only without these, but in direct opposition to influence, power, pride and envy brought to bear against them in their struggles—have arisen to distinction, and obtained an enviable fame among the benefactors, philosophers, statesmen, sages and heroes of their country. But while this has been accomplished by persevering and laborious efforts, it proves the position assumed, that efforts vigorously exerted, have been attended, on general principles, with abundant success; and that, as like causes produce like effects, similar efforts on the part of those who make them, will hereafter be attended with similar results.—Those, therefore, who are preparing to enter upon active life—who design to discharge its duties respectfully and faithfully—who expect to be the artificers of their own fortunes in the world, as indeed, all to a greater or less extent must be—who aspire to a simple competence only, or to wealth, influence or a name, have liberal encouragement in the circumstances that surround them, and in the brilliant prospects of our growing country, to make vigorous and continuous efforts to accomplish the object they have in view. By the young, especially, should the fact that well directed efforts seldom fail of their reward, be made the subject of reflection, and from it should they draw encouragement to lay their plans in a feasible manner, and to persevere in their execution, notwithstanding the feelings of irresolution and despondency that may sometimes throw a shade of gloom over their anticipations, and beget doubt and hesitancy as to the ultimate result of their undertakings. Young persons, from their want of experience in the world, are often timid and wavering—they know not what they can accomplish till they have made the trial--yet none should yield to despair—none should be willing to admit that what others in like circumstances have accomplished, they cannot accomplish also. Yet it is not necessary to happiness to attain either unbounded wealth or imperishable fame—neither would we recommend pursuit after these in themselves *ignes fatuus*—empty bubbles—that can neither set a bone nor ease a pain; but a competence, which may easily be produced, and which includes but little, and a good name which is better than 'apples of gold in pictures of silver,' are essentially necessary to constitute happiness, and within the attainment of all who desire them.—*Troy Whig.*

Brothers and Sisters.—I have often remarked, in sadness, the little feeling of affection, that seemed to subsist between brothers and sisters, or other nearer relatives, after time and distance, and the different allotments of life, had for a little while separated them. They who, in their youth, have been as one; who have drunk from the same bowl of joys and sorrows; have wept and been glad together; whom one electric chain of sympathy bound; who recoiled at the same blow;—these have lived through separation, have had their affections weaned from those bound to them by such ties and birth and blood, and turned into strange channels. As the stream sparkles, not only among the hills that gave it birth, but glistens and leaps, in its course between banks, far, far away from the green sward, that its waters first knew; so the affections rejoice and lavish themselves upon strangers, to those who first watched their dawn—forgetful, perhaps, of the objects of their earliest, purest exercise. It is sad, for young hearts to believe, that the love they now bear to each other must one day become rather a matter of judgment and duty, than an impulse of the heart; that the same fate probably awaits their affections, that has come to thousands. The brother must reflect, that soon he must yield his right of prior attachment to those who, picked up midway in the journey of life, yet have better claims to their love and sympathy on to the end of their voyage. Time and distance are the great enemies of mutual affection; and although it is only when we have first left our friends, that we know how dear they are to us, yet we love them best when we are feeding from the same table—sleeping under the same roof—in the daily reciprocation of favors, and the hourly manifestations of interest and affection. Still much may be done to counteract the common influences of life. It is a narrow philosophy that circumscribes the affections of the heart—declaring that it is only capable of transferring its love from one to another; not of enlarging greatly the number of the objects of its regard. Far otherwise; the soul expands more and more, with every effort of kindness; it cannot be crowded; like that spirit of universal benevolence, whose sublimity consists more in his infinite love for the whole world, than in power or might—that part of us, which stamps us with the image of our maker; elevates itself more by the outpourings of its affections, than by any exercise of intellectual power.—*N. E Mag.*

A Pig is a much abused animal. Every unthinking boy worries—and every urchin throws brickbats at them—but they go through the world and put up with every thing with a most commendable philosophy. The gourmand, who boasts of his fine taste, and devours *pates*, omelettes, sauces, and a thousand kinds of meats, is not a whit more luxurious than a pig who lies in the mud and water of a long summer's day, and grunts at every one who goes by him. A pig is like a politician. There is no hole so narrow or so dirty that he will not creep through, squealing lustily all the while, to get a mouthful of corn from the public crib. They live in filth, and it is a second nature to them, and there is another point of resemblance. There is no animal that makes so much noise at a trivial mishap—and none that gets over it and goes off quietly, so quickly as a pig. The whole business of their lives is to get fat—and therein they resemble an alderman. They are more obstinate than a Dutchman, more perverse than a mule—and yet there is a laconic brevity about them in which they have the advantage of editors who write long articles to let the people know that they are on the fence.

Reader, did you ever drive a pig to market? If you did, you must have observed how the little squealer ran from side to side of the road, like an editor accommodating himself to the humors of his patrons. All at once, he would dodge you, and run back with all his might—and if you had a cord to his neck, it was always about your legs.

Almost every animal in the world goes out of it more decently than a pig. He makes as much noise about it as if his life was worth something—and squeals like vengeance till the last minute of his mortal existence. In this he is inconsistent, for he loses the character of a philosopher, which he has hitherto supported. He does indeed "screw his courage to the *sticking point*," but there it fails him. We could never explain to ourselves why a pig should be so terrified at the tho'ts of death. It cannot be that his conscience troubles him, and forces him to set up so dolorous a lamentation. It is as hard to get him to die, as to put truth into the mouth of certain editors. Pigs are true republicans. They understand liberty and equality to perfection—they have their rights, and they defend them. They sleep after a true republican fashion—and if one of their brethren undertakes to disturb them of a cold night, they make as woful an outcry as did a neighbor of ours when he lost a "fat job." A pig's whole life is a farce—and ends in his being hung up by the heels with a stick in his mouth, subject to the orders of the kitchen cabinet.—*Arkansas Advocate.*

The Mother of Erskine, the Poet.—There is a remarkable circumstance connected with the history of Ralph Erskine—a fact well authenticated in the part of Scotland where his family lived. His mother "died and was buried," some years before he was born. She wore on her finger, at the time of her death, a rich gold ring, which, from some domestic cause or other, was much valued by the family. After the body was laid in the coffin, an attempt was made to remove the ring, but the hand and finger were so much swollen that it was found impossible. It was proposed to cut off the finger, but the husband's feelings revolted at the idea. She was therefore buried with the ring on her finger. The sexton, who was aware of the fact, formed a resolution to possess himself of the ring. Accordingly on the same night he opened the grave and coffin.—Having no scruples about cutting off the finger of a dead woman, he provided himself with a sharp knife for the purpose. He lifted the stiff arm, and made an incision by the joint of the finger. The blood flowed,—and the woman arose and sat up in her coffin! The grave digger fled with affright, while the lady made her way from her narrow tenement, and walked back to the door of her dwelling, where she stood without and knocked for admittance. It was about eleven o'clock at night. Her husband, who was a minister, sat conversing with a friend. When the knock was repeated, he observed, "were it not that my wife is in her grave, I should say that was *her* knock." He arose hastily and opened the door. There stood his dear companion, wrapped in her grave clothes, and her uplifted finger dropping blood. "My Margaret!" he exclaimed. "The same," said she,—"your dear wife, in her own proper person. Do not be alarmed." Many, very many, I firmly believe, have been *buried alive*, but few, like her, returned to tell the tale. The lady in question, however lived seven or eight years after this occurrence, and became the mother of several children, among whom was the author poet above spoken of.—*Grant Thorburn, in the Knickerbocker.*

A ludicrous instance of forgetfulness occurred in the neighbourhood of Boston on Wednesday, the 25th ultimo. A respectable farmer and tradesman, accompanied by his "better half," went on that day to Boston in his market cart; whilst there they received the gratifying intelligence of the unexpected accession of an ample fortune—a surprise which so completely took up "the book and volume of their brain" to the entire exclusion of all "baser matter," that the good wife complacently returned home by the market packet, and her husband on foot, neither party recollecting that their own horse and cart were at Boston!—*Lincoln Mercury.*